Urbanism in the Iron Age Levant and Beyond

Edited by
AREN MAEIR,
SHIRA ALBAZ,
and ANGELIKA BERLEJUNG

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Urbanism in the Iron Age Levant and Beyond

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Urbanism in the Iron Age Levant and Beyond: Preface and Introduction

AREN M. MAEIR, SHIRA ALBAZ and ANGELIKA BERLEJUNG

This volume contains the proceedings of the conference "Urbanism in the Iron Age Levant and Beyond", held at Bar-Ilan University, Ramat-Gan, Israel, on September 18–22, 2022. The conference was an outgrowth of an Israel Science Foundation Personal Research Grant to A.M. Maeir on Iron Age II urbanisation at Tell es-Safi/Gath ("Gath at its Greatest: The development, dating, size and character of the Lower City of Tell es-Safi during the Iron Age I–II", Grant no. 91/18). The conference itself was funded by an Israel Science Foundation Research Workshop Grant to A.M. Maeir (Grant no. 3032/20), along with additional funds from the Minerva Center for the Relations between Israel and Aram in Biblical Times (co-directed by A. Berlejung and A.M. Maeir; aramisrael.org) and the Ingeborg Rennert Center for Jerusalem Studies, Bar-Ilan University (directed by A.M. Maeir). The conference included 3 days with 31 lectures, and then two days of field trips to relevant sites in northern and southern Israel.

The conference was convened to reexamine and reassess the phenomenon of urbanism and related issues in the Iron Age Levant, particularly in light of research on the urban fabric of Iron Age IIA Philistine Gath.¹ The need for this was felt for several reasons. Firstly, most overviews on urbanism in the Iron Age Levant were outdated, either due to being written years ago,² or lacking reference to up-to-date theory on urbanism in general and ancient urbanism in particular.³ Additionally, a large amount of significant finds related to urbanism in the Iron Age Levant have been uncovered in the last decade or so, warranting synthetic treatments combining these finds with theoretical approaches. Furthermore, the fascinating advances in the theoretical study of ancient urbanism in general, which have appeared in recent years, have enabled much more complex and multifaceted approaches to the study of ancient cities. These advances have raised many new questions and ideas, and, in some cases, overturned longheld assumptions on urbanism and its very definition.⁴

¹ Creekmore III/Maeir 2021.

 $^{^2}$ E.g., Kenyon 1971; Shiloh 1987; Fritz 1995; Aufrecht *et al.* 1997; Herzog 1997; Arav 2008

³ E.g., Faust 2018: 180–184; Edelman/Ben Zvi 2014; Garfinkel/Kreimerman/Zilberg 2016; Aitken/Marlow 2018; Garfinkel 2023.

⁴ For recent studies on ancient urbanism, see, e.g., SMITH, M.E. 2012; ID. 2016; ID. 2020a; ID. 2020b; ID. 2021; ID. 2023; KÄMMERER/ROGGE 2013; FERNÁNDEZ-GÖTZ/WENDLING/WINGER 2014; SMITH, M.L. 2014; CHESSON 2015; YOFFEE 2015; CHASE/CHASE 2016; FERNÁNDEZ-GÖTZ/KRAUSSE 2016; GAYDARSKA 2016; MOELLER 2016; ZUIDERHOEK 2017; RAJA/SINDBÆK 2018; GARCIA *et al.* 2019; SMITH/LOBO 2019; THOMAS 2019; DEVECKA 2020; FARHAT 2020; FLETCHER 2020; ORTMAN *et al.*

Similarly, the understanding that terms used in biblical and other ancient sources, which are translated as "city/town" in modern languages, do not necessarily overlap with what we would call urbanism, and many supposed cities and towns described in ancient sources are far from being actual urban entities. Some scholars even claim that "the biblical 'city' is an invention of translators and scholars and may have not existed at all."

The contributions in this volume represent a diverse cross-section of studies on archaeological, textual and theoretical aspects relating to urbanism. While focusing on the Iron Age northern and southern Levant (Parts I–II), perspectives on urban-related topics in other regions, cultures and periods were included as well (Part III), to provide a broader perspective on ancient urbanism and its various manifestations.

In Part I "Urbanism in the Southern Levant," thirteen studies are included. Shay Bar and Erin Hall describe an Iron Age IIA-IIB administrative site from Tel Esur in the Iron Valley in northern Israel. While not an urban site itself, it is an administrative complex that is part of the Israelite northern kingdom, a polity with a strong urban fabric at many sites. This is followed by a contribution by Angelika Berlejung, discussing city walls as a form of communication, liminal space, mediator of boundaries, and sketching their symbolic meaning in the Hebrew Bible. Jeffrey R. Chadwick describes the Iron I and Iron II remains from the American excavations at Hebron, conducted in the 1960s, integrated with the results of more recent archaeological research at the site. He demonstrates that the site was extensively settled in both periods, with an impressive fortification in the Iron Age II. The importance of cultic processions and pilgrimages in the biblical text, and their relationship to urban sites, is discussed by Judith E. Filitz, who concludes that the importance of this "Theology of Mobility", while existing in earlier periods, was accentuated in the Persian Period, following the destruction of the Judahite Kingdom, and Jerusalem, at the end of the Iron Age. Gunnar Lehmann, who gave the opening paper at the original conference, tackles the very relevant and thorny question of whether there were cities in the Iron Age southern Levant. He suggests that while urbanism did exist in the region at this time, it was of a much smaller scale, and complexity, in comparison to other regions in the ancient Near East, and stresses the importance of local diversities and communities and their resilience in small scale urbanism of the Iron Age southern Levant. The vision of the urban geography of Iron Age Jerusalem, as reflected in the Book of Chronicles, a Persian period biblical book, is discussed in Yigal Levin's contribution. He demonstrates that this vision is a combination of information gleaned from early sources, combined with reality known in the authors' period. Oded Lipschits describes the archaeology and history of the area between the city of Jerusalem and Ramat Rachel, the palace situated just south of the city, during late 8th and 7th centuries BCE, when the Assyrians ruled the land. He sketches the roles that Ramat Rachel and other sites in the vicinity played, and how this reflects

^{2020;} Woolf 2020; Middleton 2021; Smith *et al.* 2021; Fowden *et al.* 2022; Moore/Fernández-Götz 2022.

⁵ VERMEULEN 2020: 16–19. On the issue of "city" in Hebrew, see O'CONNOR 2008: 18–39; GRAY 2018: 17–34.

on the relationship between the Assyrian Empire and the Kingdom of Judah at the time. Aren M. Maeir reviews what is known about urbanism in Iron Age Philistia. Surveying the archaeological evidence in both Philistia and nearby areas, he shows that while the large Philistine cities do seem to exhibit urban qualities – or as Michael Smith⁶ has defined "energized crowding" - many other sites that have been referred to as cities in earlier research hardly qualify as such. The oft-assumed rigid connection between urbanism and state formation may not always be the case in the Iron Age southern Levant. Rather, they may be related to tribal and kinship politics, central aspects of the sociopolitical matrix in this region. Daniel Pioske discussed the relations between Iron Age urbanism and the remains from earlier periods, and how the earlier remains effected the planning and construction of the Iron Age cities, as well as in the biblical texts. The role of the Iron Age site of Tel Burna in the Iron Age, and in particular how it was integrated into the Judahite polity is discussed by Itzik Shai. He demonstrates that the site was a third tier level settlement in the Judahite kingdom, which on the one hand exhibits connections and integration with the Judahite Kingdom's administrative structure, but on the other hand, may very well reflect the role of local leaders in forming the patron-client relationships which were a dominant part of the political structure of this kingdom. Yifat Thareani discusses the urban fabric of cities in areas after their conquest by the Neo-Assyrians, using the relevant finds from Tel Dan as a case study. She demonstrates that while the Assyrians attempted to install their urban concepts and ideology on these cities, the local population at times pushed back and retained aspects of their identity, resisting the Assyrian attempt to reshape the urban and cultural horizons. Wolfgang Zwickel surveys the evidence for urban settlements in the Galilee, in northern modern Israel, and discusses the archaeological remains and the economic relationship between these urban sites.

In Part II "Urbanism in the Northern Levant," there are four contributions. In the first contribution of this section, Dominik Bonatz reconsiders some of the basic assumptions regarding urbanism in the northern Levant. In particular, he questions the distinct differentiation between Aramean and Luwian urbanism and state formation. Rather, he sees the urban sites that appear in the early Iron II as integrating many aspects of both of these cultures. The fortress of Azatiwadaya (Karatepe-Aslantas) was built in the mid-8th century BCE and served as a fortified site for the ruler, without a substantial population at the site. Herbert Niehr demonstrates that despite it being a site without a large population, it fits well with the urban concepts known in the Syro-Anatolian region during the Iron Age. Mirko Novák discusses the urban planning of "Neo-Hittite/Luwo-Aramean" cities. By comparing various sites, he demonstrates that there were overarching themes present, even when the specific identities (Aramean or Luwian) might have been different at these sites. Tell Halaf, ancient Gūzāna, is one of the best-known Iron Age sites in northeastern Syria. It served as the political centre of the Aramean kingdom Bīt Baḥiāni, which was eventually incorporate into the Neo-Assyrian Empire. Alexander E. Sollee demonstrates that contrary to previous suggestions, the Assyrians did not completely alter the urban fabric of the site. He believes (in contrast to Thareani's contribution) that this indicates that Neo-Assyrian policy did not require urban reorganisation of conquered sites within their regions.

⁶ SMITH/LOBO 2019; SMITH, M.E. 2023.

Part III: Urbanism in other Regions, Cultures and Periods include five studies. In the first study in this section, Joachim Bretschneider discusses the short-lived site of Pyla-Kokkinokremos in southern central Cyprus at the very end of the 13th century BCE and the beginning of the 12th century BCE. This site, with rather flimsy fortifications and domestic quarters – and no monumental architecture – was most probably located just above a contemporaneous port and revealed impressive finds indicating connectivity with many regions in the central and eastern Mediterranean. While the exact reasons behind the initial settlement at the site and its destruction soon after are not clear, he stresses that there is no doubt that they are related to deep changes occurring in the Mediterranean during the Late Bronze/Iron Age transition at this time. Andrew T. Creekmore III presents the results of a remote sensing study using magnetometry, focusing on the urban planning of the site of Kurd Qaburstan in Iraqi Kurdistan. As opposed to some who had suggested that following the collapse of the Early Bronze Age in the region, cities built during the Middle Bronze Age were "hollow," with relatively few zones of construction. Based on the results of the magnetometric analyses at the site, the city was densely settled during the Middle Bronze Age, contrary to previous assumptions. The formation of Minoan cities of the 3rd and 2nd millennia BCE are the focus of Jan Driessen's contribution. He argues that the underlying reasons for the development of a small number of central Minoan urban sites are their role as ceremonial hubs. Focusing on Knossos, he demonstrates how the development of the site into a city was directly related to the processional route connecting it with the peak sanctuary at Mt. Juktas, located to the south of Knossos. In his contribution, Manuel Fernández-Götz, takes us to questions on urbanism in Temperate Europe in the Iron Age. He surveys the processes and ups and downs of the development of urbanism in Europe north of the Alps from around 800 BCE until the Roman conquest. In doing so, he not only presents important evidence for the urbanisation in Temperate Europe, but also provides important theoretical insights for the study of urbanism in the Levant as well. The final contribution in the volume, by Shigeo Yamada, discusses the city plan of Dūr-Šarrukīn, the capital city built, but never completed, by Sargon II, king of Assyria. He demonstrates how the plan of the city fits in with the Assyrian world view and its role as serving as the centre of the world, and how it was highly influenced by the plan of the city of Babylon, reflecting the ideological competition between Assyria and Babylonia.

All told, the 22 contributions in this volume provide a broad overview of many aspects of urbanism in the Iron Age Levant, in the north and in the south, as well as perspectives on urbanism in other regions, cultures and periods. The integration of new finds, fresh perspectives, biblical exegesis, and theoretical approaches, sets the stage for further studies and reassessments of myriad aspects of urbanisation, in the Iron Age Levant and in other ancient contexts.

Finally, we would like to express our gratitude to the 23 authors for their excellent contributions, to the staff of the Tell es-Safi/Gath Archaeological Project for their assistance in organising and running the original conference, and to Dr. Nadine Eßbach for expertly copy editing the volume.

Ramat-Gan/Leipzig, June 2024.

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Abbreviations

Ä&L Ägypten & Levante

AASOR The Annual of the American Schools of Oriental Research

ÄAT Ägypten und Altes Testament ABS Archaeology and Biblical Studies

ADOG Abhandlungen der Deutschen Orient-Gesellschaft ADPV Abhandlungen des Deutschen Palästina-Vereins

AfO Archiv für Orientforschung

AJA American Journal of Archaeology ANEM Ancient Near East Monographs

ANESSup Ancient Near Eastern Studies, Supplement

AOAT Alter Orient und Altes Testament AoF Altorientalische Forschungen ARA Annual Review of Anthropology

AASOR The Annual of the American Schools of Oriental Research
ATD Das Alte Testament Deutsch/Neues Göttinger Bibelwerk

AVO Altertumskunde des Vorderen Orients

BaF Baghdader Forschungen BaM Baghdader Mitteilungen

BAMS Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society

BAR Biblical Archaeology Review

BARIS British Archaeological Reports International Series
BASOR Bulletin of the American Society of Overseas Research

BCH Bulletin de correspondance hellénique

BCSMS Bulletin of The Canadian Society for Mesopotamian Studies

BINS Biblical Interpretation Series

BJS Brown Judaic Studies

BSAW Berlin Studies of the Ancient World

BSFAC Bulletin de la Sociétë Française d'archéologie Classique
BWANT Beiträge zur Wissenschaft vom Alten und Neuen Testament
BZAW Beihefte zur Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft

CAJ Cambridge Archaeological Journal

CDOG Colloquien der Deutschen Orient-Gesellschaft
CHANE Culture and History of the Ancient Near East
CSSH Comparative Studies in Society and History

DAA Denkmäler Antiker Architektur
FAT Forschungen zum Alten Testament

HdO Handbuch der Orientalistik
HeBAI Hebrew Bible and Ancient Israel

XVI Abbreviations

HSAO Heidelberger Studien zum Alten Orient

HThK.AT Herders Theologischer Kommentar zum Alten Testament

IAA Reports Israel Antiquities Authority Reports

IEJ Israel Exploration Journal IstMitt Istanbuler Mitteilungen

JAA Journal of Anthropological Archaeology
JAAS Journal of Assyrian Academic Studies
JAJSup Journal of Ancient Judaism: Supplements
JAOS Journal of the American Oriental Society

JBL Journal of Biblical Literature
JBS Jerusalem Biblical Studies
JCS Journal of Cuneiform Studies
JEH Journal of Egyptian History

JEMAHS Journal of Eastern Mediterranean Archaeology and Heritage

Studies

JEOL Jaarbericht van het Vooraziatisch-egyptisch Genootschap Ex

Oriente Lux

JESHO Journal of the Economic and Social History of the Orient

JJAR Jerusalem Journal of Archaeology
JMA Journal of Mediterranean Archaeology
JNSL Journal of Northwest Semitic Languages

JSA Journal of Social Archaeology

JSOT Journal for the Study of the Old Testament

JSOTSup Journal for the Study of the Old Testament Supplement Series

JSRS Judea and Samaria Research Studies

JSS Journal of Semitic Studies

KUSATU Kleine Untersuchungen zur Sprache des Alten Testaments

und seiner Umwelt

LAS Leipziger Altorientalische Studien

LHBOTS Library of Hebrew Bible/Old Testament Studies

LMEH Library of Middle East History

MAAO Münchener Abhandlungen zum Alten Orient

NEA Near Eastern Archaeology

NEAEHL The New Encyclopedia of Archaeological Excavations in the

Holy Land

NICOT New International Commentary on the Old Testament
NSK.AT Neuer Stuttgarter Kommentar – Altes Testament

OBO Orbis Biblicus et Orientalis

OBO.SA Orbis Biblicus et Orientalis Series Archaeologica

OIP Oriental Institut Publications
OLA Orientalia Lovaniensia Analecta
OREA Oriental and European Archaeology
PEQ Palestine Exploration Quarterly

PIPOAC Publications de l'Institut du Proche-Orient ancien du Collège

de France

Abbreviations XVII

PNAS Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the

United States of America

RA Revue d'Assyriologie et d'Archéologie Orientale
RIAB Research on Israel and Aram in Biblical Times
RIHAO Revista Del Instituto De Historia Antigua Oriental
RINAP The Royal Inscriptions of the Neo-Assyrian Period

RIA Reallexikon der Assyriologie und Vorderasiatischen Archäologie

RSO Ras Shamra Ougarit

SAAS State Archives of Assyria Studies

SAHL Studies in the Archaeology and History of the Levant

SBA Saarbrücker Beiträge zur Archäologie

SBL Society of Biblical Literature Writings from the Ancient World SBLAIL Society of Biblical Literature, Ancient Israel and Its Literature

SBLDS Society of Biblical Literature Dissertation Series

SHANE Studies in the History and Culture of the Ancient Near East

SIMA Studies in Mediterranean Archaeology SMEA Studi Micenei ed Egeo-Anatolici

SoSchrÖAI Sonderschriften des Österreichischen Archäologischen Instituts

SSN Studia Semitica Neerlandica

SVA Schriften zur Vorderasiatischen Archäologie

SWBA Social World of Biblical Antiquity
SWBAS Social World of Biblical Antiquity Series

TA Tel Aviv

TA Mon. Ser. Tel Aviv University, Monograph Series

TdH Texte der Hethiter

TSSI Textbook of Syrian Semitic Inscriptions

UF Ugarit-Forschungen VT Vetus Testamentum

VTSup Vetus Testamentum, Supplements

WdO Welt des Orients

WVDOG Wissenschaftliche Veröffentlichungen der Deutschen Orient-

Gesellschaft

ZAW Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft

ZDMG Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft

ZDPV Zeitschrift des Deutschen Palästina-Vereins

ZOrA Zeitschrift für Orient-Archäologie

Part I: Urbanism in the Southern Levant

An Iron Age IIA–IIB Administrative Structure from Tel Esur Area D East

SHAY BAR and ERIN HALL

Abstract: Tel Esur is situated at the western end of Nahal 'Iron, a wadi that leads eastward to Megiddo. The site was strategically important in the Bronze and Iron Ages, given that it is located on a branch of the Via Maris, the main route connecting Egypt to the north. Excavations at the site in Area D East revealed architecture in the form of a gate complex, pottery, as well as a unique assemblage of cult finds. After ceramic analysis, which included both late Iron IIA–B forms, it was determined that the materials date to the "early" Iron IIB. This gate complex was part of a larger Israelite administrative area already excavated and published, that included a fortified tower and large storage facilities. The following article presents a report of the finds from the gate complex and interprets all the Iron Age data from the site based on geopolitics and ritual activity within northern Israel.

1. Introduction

Tel Esur (Tell el-Asawir) is situated in the northern Sharon Plain (Israel New Grid 2020/7097), at the western entrance to Nahal 'Iron (Wadi 'Ara; Fig. 1). This wadi was one of three possible routes through which the *Via Maris* could have crossed eastward toward the Jezreel Valley, the two others running through the Dothan Valley and Nahal Tut. Although many scholars agree today that the 'Iron Pass was not the most prominent route of the three, it was nevertheless in use, branching northeastward from the vicinity of the site. Other two important roads passed by the site leading to Wadi Milh, toward Yoqneam, and westward towards the port city of Dor.

There are two tels at the site of Esur: the larger is approximately 2,2 ha, rising 11 m above its surroundings (66 m above sea level); the smaller one, about 0,4 ha (58 m above sea level), is situated about 100 m to the southeast (Fig. 2). In the excavations of the larger tel, the remains of a well-built Middle Bronze Age city were unearthed, including a unique fortification system and large public structures and plazas.² These were replaced by a smaller scale activity in the Late Bronze Age, when the site shrank in size, but not in importance. During this time period, it housed an Egyptian-related caravan station named *Djefti*, mentioned by Thutmose III.³ A sizeable protohistoric site covering an area of 60–70 ha is located south of the larger tel and is partially buried beneath the small mound.

¹ Dorsey 1991: 59f., 70f., 78–80; Gadot 1999: 27–30; Zertal 2000.

² BAR 2021.

³ SHALVI et al. 2019; BAR 2021.

A large spring, 'Ein Asawir (also called 'Uyun al-Assawir/'Ein Arubboth), is located east of the larger tel, about 50 m north of the smaller tel, and another spring lies adjacent to the southwestern side of the former.

2. Stratigraphy and Architecture

Earlier excavations in Area D, on the western slopes of the small tel, exposed the foundations of a large complex dated to the Iron Age IIB.⁴ The complex was constructed on an uninhabited area, cutting into the remains of a long-buried Early Bronze Age I settlement

This complex includes three structures (Fig. 3): the first is a fortified square tower-like structure measuring about 13 x 13 m, its inner plan comprising nine rectangular rooms of various sizes. Eight of the rooms surround a central square room/yard. The second part is composed of three long, paved rooms, probably storage facilities, abutting on the east. The orientation and width of these rooms follow the inner division of the tower, and the two structures were probably built at the same time. Together they comprise a massive stone-built rectangular structure, symmetrical along its main east-west axis. Another structure, built of thinner walls and in a different layout, abuts from the north. Several *tabuns* and other installations were found in this structure, which seems to be a service unit.

This complex was found almost empty: a few vessels (mainly cooking pots and bowls dated to the early phases of the Iron Age IIB⁵) were found in the northern structure, and several sherds were found lying on the floor in one of the rooms of the fortified structure. All other rooms contained only stone and disintegrating mudbrick collapse on the floors, indicating that it was abandoned in an orderly manner.

Between 2015 and 2022, the excavation in Area D shifted a few meters eastward (Fig. 3), bypassing the modern concrete paving on the upper part of the tel. This was therefore named Area D East. Another large structure was unearthed with the same style of masonry, wall orientation and floor heights as the earlier excavated complex, suggesting that there are larger and more well-built structures at the site than previously assumed.

The complex of Area D East (Figs. 4–5) is interpreted as a three-chambered gate with two abutting structures. The overall size of the structure is 7.5 x 18 m, 135 sq m. Neither the gate nor its abutting structures are related to a fortification wall or additional structures. It therefore seems that the gate had a monumental and symbolic significance, rather than being built for defensive purposes.⁶

The gate is oriented north-south (Fig. 4) and has a 1.2 m wide opening in the north between walls 114028 and 124028. It is bounded in the west and east by walls 114038 and 124010. The southern part is not built-up and a plaza 38 sq m in size was left open between these walls. Four antes abut the eastern and western walls. Interestingly, only two antes face each other (walls 124055 and 124047). The other two antes (eastern part

⁴ Shalev/Bar 2017; Bar et al. 2021.

⁵ SHALEV/BAR 2017.

⁶ Cf. FINKELSTEIN et al. 2018 for a similar phenomenon at Megiddo.

of 124054 and 144018) do not sit opposite others (in the case of the southern ante, the area was disturbed in later periods; Iron Age remains were destroyed, and so we cannot rule out that an opposite ante was built there in the Iron Age). There are at least two phases to the opening in the northern part of the gate complex between walls 114028 and 124028. In the earlier phase, discernible only through masonry changes in the northern walls, the opening to the gate was much larger, almost 3.5 m wide. In terms of beaten earth floors, there are at least two levels attested. It is currently thought that the earlier floor may predate the construction of at least some of the gate antes, suggesting architectonic changes and prolong use of the gate. Abutting gate wall 124048 was a staircase (124049) that led to a probable second floor.

The gate structure is abutted from the west (shared wall 114038) by a rectangular stone paved room (walls 114038, 114024, 124054 and 154027). The room's dimensions are 4 x 7.5 m (inner dimensions) and its overall inner area is 30 sq m. In the fill above floor were found many broken vessels, including Phoenician sherds, a miniature votive vessel (see below), and a unique animal-decorated seal (not detailed here). It seems that this room served for storage.

The gate structure was abutted from the east (shared wall 124010) by a badly preserved square-shaped room (preserved walls 124010, 124048, and 154061). The southern wall and southeastern corner are missing and several undated walls (e.g. 154086, 154085 and 154098) do not yet make a cohesive structural plan. The room's probable dimensions are 5 x 5.5 m (inner dimensions) and its overall area is about 27.5 sq m. This area was badly disturbed by later occupational activity (mainly dating to the Late Ottoman period), and several Early Bronze Age walls (e.g. 144033 and 144030) protrude beneath the Iron Age walls and associated floors.

Additional features and walls lying outside the main gate structure (e.g. 154033, 154057 and 154082) are mostly undated or represent later elements, seemingly not an integral part of the Iron Age II constructions.

3. The Pottery Typology

The typology details the Iron Age assemblage uncovered only in the Iron Age gate structure from Area D East. The pottery is described according to type, providing information regarding the significance of specific vessels. The corpus is comprised of bowls, kraters, cooking pots, a jug, storage jars, decorated pottery and cultic vessels. These types are mainly characteristic of the Iron IIA–B transition, continuing to the beginning of Iron Age IIB.

Since many Iron Age sites in the Sharon Plain and Yarkon Basin, such as Tel Michal, Makhmis, Tel Poleg, Tel Hefer, and Tel Mikhmoret, have not yet been published in full,⁷ it is not possible to conduct a survey of ceramics within these regions. Instead, sites dating to the Iron IIA–B located in the Jezreel Valley, Beth-Shean Valley, Huleh Valley, Akko Plain and the Carmel Coast are considered. Iron IIA sites include Megiddo Stratum VA–IVB, Level Q-6 to Q-4, and the "Burnt Debris"; Beth-Shean S-1 and P-10;

⁷ Cf. FAUST 2007.

Horvat Rosh Zayit II; Tell el-Farah North VIIb; Tel Rehov V–IV; Taanach Period II; Yoqneam XIV; and Hazor X–IX. Those sites dated to the Iron IIB include Megiddo Strata IVA, Levels K-3, H-3 and Q-2; Yoqneam XIII–XII; Beth-Shean P-9 to P-7; Tel Rehov III–II; Horvat Rosh Zayit Areas A, B and C; Hazor VIII–V; Kinneret II–I; Tell el-Farah North VIId; Taanach Period V and Shikmona Level A6. The connection between Tel Esur, an inland site, and the Phoenician cities of Sarepta and Tyre III–II may not be obvious, however the presence of Phoenician pottery calls for comparison. In some cases, sites from the Judahite cultural milieu are also cited, including Lachish V–IV, Tel Batash V–IV, and Tel Masos Stratum II.

Several bowls found in the assemblage are common throughout the land of Israel in the Iron IIB. Types include carinated bowls with ledge rims (BL1; Fig. 6:1–4), straight-walled bowls with a diagonally cut everted rim (BL2; Fig. 6:5–6), straight walled bowls with plain rim (BL3; Fig. 6:7) and rounded bowls with tapering rim (BL4; Fig. 6:8). The rim of a possible chalice (CH1; Fig. 6:9) was also uncovered. Chalices are typical of early Iron Age assemblages but become more sporadic in the Iron IIB. This may be due to a lack of sites with evidence for cultic activity in this period.

Several kraters were also found within the assemblage. These include kraters with a folded or straight rim (KR1; Fig. 7:1–3), carinated kraters with folded rim (KR2; Fig. 7:4), a deep krater (KR3; Fig. 7:5) and kraters with gutter rim (KR4; Fig. 7:6–8). All of the krater types appear in the Iron IIA and continue into the Iron IIB. Deep kraters are either rounded or carinated and can have different rim styles. ¹⁰ The one example of this type from Tel Esur has a rounded body and a flattened rim. Such vessels were probably sunken into floors for use as storage vessels (*ibid.*). As for the kraters with gutter rims, at Hazor, they begin to appear in Stratum X–IX but become more popular in Stratum VIII assemblages. In Strata VII to VI they decline in appearance and are lacking from Strata V–IV. ¹¹ This may mean that they are mainly characteristic of the Iron IIA–B transition.

Cooking pots with triangular rim (CP1; Fig. 8:1–2), straight rim (CP2; Fig. 8:3–5), inverted, flat rims (CP4; Fig. 8:7) and grooved rims (CP5; Fig. 8:8–9) are all attested. One sherd of a cooking jug (CJ1; Fig. 8:11) was also uncovered. The holemouth cooking pot uncovered is probably intrusive, since this type is typical of the Iron IIC¹² and a cooking pot with overhanging triangular rim (CP3; Fig. 8:6) seems residual from the Middle Bronze Age.

Two cooking pots with triangular rim (CP1) were uncovered at Tel Esur. Pots of this kind are typical of the Iron IIA and represent the continuation of an Iron I type. At Keisan, cooking pots with triangular rim are found as late as the Iron IIC.¹³ Although this type does not continue at inland sites, it is known from the late Iron Age at certain

⁸ Ben-Ami/Sandhaus/Ben-Tor 2012: 445; cf. Amiran 1969: 213; Mazar/Panitz-Cohen 2001: 56–57.

⁹ Cf. HALL 2020.

¹⁰ BEN-AMI/SANDHAUS/BEN-TOR 2012: 449.

¹¹ Ibid. 448–449.

¹² ARIE 2020: fig. 4:6.

¹³ Briend/Humbert 1980: pl. 35:5.

sites along the Akko Plain. ¹⁴ Similar types also appear at Tel Kabri Stratum E3¹⁵ and Shikmona Phase A6. ¹⁶ Although it was originally thought that this type was residual at Shikmona, its appearance at several late Iron Age sites means residuality is not necessarily the case. Indeed, their appearance in Level Q-2 at Megiddo suggests that there was a dwindling in production but not an all-out termination of this type. ¹⁷

Cooking pots with inverted, flat rim are found in the early Iron IIA.¹⁸ Arie suggests that this type is "southern" in style. However, examples are known from the north in the late Iron IIA and may continue into the Iron IIB in light of the sherd from Beth-Shean Stratum P-8.¹⁹

As for cooking pots with thickened, grooved rims, these are characteristic of Iron IIB assemblages found throughout the country.²⁰ In northern assemblages, cooking pots of this type also continue into the Iron IIC.²¹ Handles were not preserved on the two examples found at Esur.

Cooking jugs continue earlier traditions and are commonly found in the Iron I and Iron IIA.²² There is a significant decline in this type of ware in the Iron IIB.²³ Continuity, nevertheless, is apparent given the appearance of cooking jugs in Iron IIB contexts at Megiddo Level Q-2, Shikmona A6 and Yoqneam XII (see parallels for references).

The one jug uncovered in the assemblage has a convex rim (Fig. 9:1). Mazar refers to jugs of this type as "elongated".²⁴ He also states that this jug type is mainly attested in Iron IIB assemblages of northern Israel.

Storage jars in the assemblage include bag-shaped examples (SJ1; Fig. 10:1–3), Hippos (SJ2; Fig. 10:4–6), ovoid jars (SJ3; Fig. 10:7), jars with triangular rim (SJ4; Fig. 10:8) and a holemouth jar with flattened, inverted rim (SJ5; Fig. 10:9). All of these types begin in the Iron IIA and continue into the Iron IIB. Hippos jars are found all over northern Israel and petrographic results indicate that "there was no specialization of clay recipes;" they were most likely locally produced. As for the holemouth jar, it is classified as type HM IIa at Horvat Rosh Zayit. According to Kleiman, they are "an indisputable marker of the Iron IIB at Megiddo".

Turning to the decorated pottery, a sherd of a Black-on-Red jug/juglet (BoR; Fig. 11:1) was uncovered in addition to several examples of Phoenician Bichrome Ware (BW; Fig. 11:2–6).

¹⁴ E.g., Rosh Zayit Area B and C of the Iron IIB; see GAL/ALEXANDRE 2000: 43.

¹⁵ LEHMANN 2002: fig. 5.73: 4–5.

¹⁶ HALL/BAR forthcoming.

¹⁷ Cf. Kleiman 2022: 915.

¹⁸ Arie 2013: 694.

¹⁹ MAZAR 2006: 336, type CP55.

²⁰ MAZAR 2006: 344.

²¹ MAZAR 2020: 285.

²² Cf. Megiddo Level Q-5 in KLEIMAN 2022: fig. 23.44:10 as well as ARIE 2013: 696.

²³ Kleiman 2022: 917–918.

²⁴ MAZAR 2006: 362-363.

²⁵ BEN-SHLOMO 2020: 308-309.

²⁶ GAL/ALEXANDRE 2000: 173.

²⁷ KLEIMAN 2022: 928.

Black-on-Red jugs and juglets are common in the late Iron IIA and early Iron IIB.²⁸ This vessel, like others of this ware, was probably imported from Cyprus. As for the Bichrome Ware, this type of decoration may have origins in either Cyprus or Phoenicia. It is characterised by vessels decorated with red- and black-painted lines.

Lastly, several items of cultic significance were uncovered, including a zoomorphic vessel (ZM; Fig. 12:1) and two miniature vessels (MV; Fig. 12:2–3). The zoomorphic vessel seems to have been used for libation purposes. Horse,²⁹ bovine³⁰ and sheep³¹ figurines all appear in the Iron IIA–B. Zoomorphic vessels are common in this period and could represent daily objects, libation vessels, or even children's toys.³² The example from Tel Esur may represent ritual activity. The two miniature vessels have parallels at several sites. At Tel Qasile, excavators uncovered a group of seven similar vessels from an Iron I context that was interpreted as a favissa.³³ According to Mazar,³⁴ miniature vessels continue a Bronze Age tradition and are known at sites such as Nahariya, Megiddo and Beth Shemesh (Middle Bronze Age) and Ugarit (Late Bronze Age).

4. Summary

In the late 9th century BCE, a new settlement was erected at Tel Esur, which had at this point been uninhabited for several hundred years. Faust has shown in his study of the rural settlement of ancient Israel during the Iron Age, that many rural settlements were newly established during the Iron Age IIB (especially in the highlands), and that the vast majority did not continue from Iron Age I.35 Tel Esur, however, seems to deviate from the typical model: on one hand, the architecture – the gate complex, the storage facilities and the fortified tower - clear evidence of a royal or state presence, usually existed in country towns or cities of higher hierarchy; on the other, its small size, usually indicates a small village or a farmstead, rather than a larger, high rank settlement. The plans of the structures: the gate, the tower, with axial symmetry oriented around a central hall, and the storehouse building with its tripartite layout, are characteristic of the southern Levantine Iron Age II official architectural tradition.³⁶ In this manner Tel Esur, which is clearly too small in size to be even a town, may have been a large estate or a regional administrative centre (probably subservient to Megiddo, but maybe also to Dor), in which agricultural products and other commodities were collected and stored. One of the excavators of the site recently suggested that it functioned as part of the horse-

²⁸ MAZAR 2006: 375–376; SCHREIBER 2003: 88–220 for parallels.

²⁹ TADMOR 2005: 491.

³⁰ BEN-SHLOMO 2008.

³¹ TADMOR 2012: 491.

³² Cf. TADMOR 2012: 491.

³³ MAZAR 1980: 117, fig. 47.

³⁴ Ibid.

³⁵ FAUST 2015a

³⁶ For a detailed comparison to other Israelite administrative structures and a possible functional suggestion see SHALEV/BAR 2017.

management economy centered in nearby Megiddo, and that the tripartite structure is actually stables.³⁷

It is important to note that the excavation exposed only small segments of the site (in the centre and western slope) and it is very probable that additional Iron Age administrative structures are still buried in the uppermost part of the tel, north of the free-standing gate, and along its northern and eastern slopes.

The construction of the administrative centre at Tel Esur in the transition between the Iron Age IIA and IIB and its use until the 8th century BCE, might be an indication of the will of the Kings of Israel to enforce their jurisdiction over the area. According to one of the authors, Shay Bar, such activity may culminate in the days of Jeroboam II (786–746 BCE), a period in which Israel experienced economic prosperity and territorial growth, reaching its maximum territorial range. Recovering from the Aramean pressure the Kingdom of Israel started expanding again in Jeroboam II's reign as "He restored the border of Israel from the entrance of Hamath unto the sea of the Arabah ..." (2Kings 14:25).

The latest pottery from good context at the site is dated to the mid-8th century BCE, providing a *terminus ad quem* for the demise of the site, but offers no clues as to why it was abandoned. Nevertheless, while most sites in the territories of the former Kingdom of Israel show signs of destruction, damage, or at least decline following the Assyrian conquest,³⁸ the site at Tel Esur seems to come to an end a decade or two before Tiglath Pileser III's campaign. While the reasons for the abandonment are yet to be determined, it should be mentioned that the same phenomenon was recently noticed at the nearby Israelite city of Dor.³⁹ This process of severe decline or even total abandonment prior to the Assyrian occupation was therefore more than a single local event and should be regarded as a possible deliberate regime choice for other reasons than just the fear of the approaching Assyrian army.

In terms of the cultic assemblage, gate shrines are attested in the Iron IIA at sites like at Tell el-Farah N.⁴⁰ and possibly at Megiddo Stratum VA–IVB.⁴¹ It is possible that the Esur cultic assemblage is reflective of ritual activities within the gate complex. If so, this would make it one of few cultic assemblages attributable to the Iron IIB in northern Israel. Apart from the four-horned altar from a possible Iron IIB context at Tel Kedesh/Tell Abu Qudeis,⁴² the only cultic activity attested in this period is debatably attested at Megiddo Building 338,⁴³ with possible feasting activities at Samaria as well.⁴⁴ This is in contrast to a "boom" of cultic activity in the Iron IIA.⁴⁵ Ritual activity in the gate may have been intended to bless its construction, those entering the place, or it may mean that cultic practices took place in the gate itself. Gates were liminal places where those

³⁷ BAR et al. 2021.

³⁸ FAUST 2015b.

³⁹ GILBOA et al. 2015: 71.

⁴⁰ HERZOG 1997: 218; MUMCUOGLU/GARFINKEL 2020.

⁴¹ HERZOG 1997; for a summary of the possible interpretations for Building 2081's cultic assemblage, see HALL 2020.

⁴² STERN/BEIT-ARIEH 1979: 5, figs. 7.15–7.16.

⁴³ For a discussion of the date of this building, see HALL 2020: 165–166; HALL forthcoming.

⁴⁴ Hall 2022.

⁴⁵ FINKELSTEIN 2013.

who approached entered into a new context. It is thus not surprisingly that rituals may be associated with such an area. Further excavations may clarify the nature of cult at Esur, as only three cult finds were uncovered thus far.

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